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THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

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A BRIEF SUGGESTIVE LIST OF READING FOR CHILDREN IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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During the last few years a large number of public libraries have published selected lists of the best books for children and have distributed them gratuitously among their patrons. Some excellent lists have also found their way into books on literature for children and are now on sale in the bookstores. Repeated inquiries have come to the School of Education library for lists of books recommended by this institution, both from those who are familiar with the best of these published lists and also from those who seem to be ignorant that any such lists have ever been published.

In the spring of this year the Parents' Association of the Elementary School in the School of Education asked the librarian to have prepared a brief suggestive list of books for children which the parents could use with their children during the long vacation. As many requests have been received for this list from parents, teachers, and librarians, it was thought that it might prove valuable to the readers of the *Elementary School Teacher*. It is offered below with a few additions and some changes. Other selected lists of books for children will be presented in this magazine from time to time.

BRIEF SUGGESTIVE READING LIST—ELEMENTARY GRADES

FOR PARENTS

Bible stories, ed. by MOULTON. Macmillan, 50c.
COUCH, Oxford book of English verse. Clarendon, $1.90.
DANA, How to know the wild flowers. Scribner, $2.00.

DUGMORE, Bird homes. Doubleday, $2.00.
ELSON, Side lights on Amer. history. 2v. in 1. Macmillan, 75c.
HODGE, Nature study and life. Ginn, $1.50.
HOLLAND. Butterfly book. Doubleday, $3.00.
HOWARD, Insect book. Doubleday, $3.00.
JORDAN AND EVERMAN, Amer. food and game fishes. Doubleday, $4.00.
KEELER, Our native trees and how to identify them. Scribner, $2.00.
LYMAN, Story telling. McClurg. $1.00.
SYLVESTER, ed., Journeys through bookland. Bellows, Reeve Co., 10v. $22.50.

PICTURE BOOKS

Book of ships. Dutton, 75c.
BROOKE, Johnny Crowe's garden. Warne, $1.00.
BURGESS, Goops. Stokes, $1.50.
CALDECOTT, Picture book. Warne, $2.50.
CRANE, Beauty and the beast picture book. Lane, $1.25.
FRANCIS, Book of cheerful cats. Century, $1.00.
GREENAWAY, A apple pie. Warne, 75c.
WEATHERLY, Book of gnomes. Dutton, $1.50.

GRADE 1

AESOP, Fables retold by Godolphin. McKay, 50c.
ALEXANDER, Child classics, 1st reader. Bobbs-Merrill, 35c.
BANNERMAN, Story of little black Sambo. Stokes, 50c.
BLAKE AND ALEXANDER, Graded poetry—1 and 2. Merrill and Co., 20c.
Jack and the beanstalk. Longmans, 15c.
POTTER, Tale of Peter Rabbit. Warne, 50c.
Snow drop and other stories. Longmans, 15c.
TREADWELL, Reading literature. Row, Peterson, 40c.

GRADE 2

CALDECOTT, Hey diddle diddle picture book. Warne, $1.25.
COX, Brownies; their book. Century, $1.50.
CRANE, Goody two shoes picture book. Lane, $1.25.
CRUIKSHANK, ed. Fairy book. Putnam, $2.00.
O'SHEA, Old world wonder stories. Heath, 40c.
PERRAULT, Tales of Mother Goose; tr. by Welsh. Heath, 40c.
PYLE, Careless Jane. Dutton, 75c.
SCUDDER, Children's book. Houghton, $2.50.
SMITH, Eskimo stories. Rand McNally, $1.00.
STEVENSON, Child's garden of verses. Rand McNally, 50c.
SUMMERS, Second reader. Beattys, 50c.

GRADE 3

BALDWIN, Fifty famous stories retold. Amer. Book Co., 35c.
CARROLL, Alice's adventures in Wonderland. Macmillan, $1.00.

CARROLL, Through the looking-glass. Macmillan, $1.00.
CRAIK, Adventures of a Brownie. Harper, 60c.
GRIMM, Household stories: tr. by Crane. Cranford ed. Macmillan, $1.50.
JACKSON, Cat stories. Little, $2.00.
JACOBS, English fairy tales. Putnam, $1.25.
LANG, ed., Beauty and the beast and other stories. Longmans, 75c.
LEAR, Nonsense songs. Warne, $2.00.
LORENZINI, Pinocchio. Ginn, 60c.
PEARY, Children of the Arctic. Stokes, $1.20.
RHYS, Fairy Gold. Dutton, $2.50.
SWIFT, Gulliver's travels retold by Baldwin. Amer. Book Co., 35c.
WIGGIN, Posy ring. McClure, $1.25.

GRADE 4

ANDERSEN, Fairy tales; introd. by Hale. Lippincott, $2.00.
Arabian nights' entertainments; ed. by Lang. Longmans, $2.00.
BROOKS, True story of Christopher Columbus. Lothrop, $1.50.
BUNYAN, Pilgrim's progress. Century, $1.50.
CRAIK, Little lame prince. Harper, 60c.
EGGLESTON, Stories of American life and adventure. Amer. Book Co., 50c.
GOULD, Children's Plutarch; tales of the Greeks. Harper, 75c.
GOULD, Children's Plutarch; tales of the Romans. Harper, 75c.
HARRIS, Daddy Jake the runaway, and short stories. Century, $1.25.
JACOBS, Celtic fairy tales. Putnam, $1.25.
KIPLING, Just so stories. Doubleday, $1.20.
LANG, Blue fairy book. Longmans, $2.00.
MACDONALD, Light princess and other fairy tales. Putnam, $1.75.
OTIS, Toby Tyler. Harper, 60c.
SAUNDERS, Beautiful Joe; autobiography of a dog. Amer. Baptist Pub. Soc., 60c.
SEWELL, Black Beauty. Lothrop, $1.00.
STARR, American Indians. Heath, 45c.
STOKES, Ten common trees. Amer. Book Co., 60c.
SPYRI, Moni, the goat boy, and other stories. Ginn, 40c.
SWIFT, Gulliver's travels; il. by Rackham. Dutton, $2.50.
WEED, Seed-travellers. Ginn, 40c.

GRADE 5

ASBJORNSEN, Fairy tales; tr. by Braekstad. Nutt, 6*s*.
BALDWIN, Story of Siegfried. Scribner, $1.50.
BEARD, Jack of all trades. Scribner, $2.00.
BEARD, How to amuse yourself and others, American girls' handy book. Scribner, $2.00.
BURROUGHS, Squirrels and other fur bearers. Houghton, $1.00.
CARPENTER, How the world is fed. Amer. Book Co., 60c.
DEFOE, Life of Robinson Crusoe. Harper, $1.50.

DODGE, Land of pluck. Century, $1.50.
HARRIS, Nights with Uncle Remus. Houghton, $1.50.
INGPEN, One thousand poems for children. Jacobs, $1.25.
MACDONALD, At the back of the north wind. Blackie, *3s 6d.*
MACLEOD, Book of King Arthur and his noble knights. Stokes, $1.50.
MCMURRY, Pioneer history stories of the Mississippi valley. Public School Pub. Co., 50c.
PATTERSON, The spinner family. McClurg, $1.25.
PUTNAM, Children's life of Abraham Lincoln. McClurg, $1.25.
PYLE, Merry adventures of Robin Hood. Scribner, 50c.
RAMÉE, The Nürnberg stove. Lippincott, 50c.
SETON, Krag and Johnny Bear. Scribner, 50c.
SPYRI, Heidi. 2v. in 1. DeWolfe, $1.50.
STOCKTON, Bee-man of Orn, and other tales. Scribner, $1.25.
TAPPAN, Robin Hood and his book. Little, Brown, $1.50.
WILKINS, In colonial times. Lothrop, 50c.

GRADE 6

ALDRICH, Story of a bad boy. Houghton, $1.25.
BAKER, Boys' second book of inventions. McClure, $1.60.
BALDWIN, Conquest of the old Northwest and its settlement by Americans. Amer. Book Co., 60c.
BOYESEN, Boyhood in Norway. Scribner, $1.25.
BROOKS, Boy emigrants. Scribner, $1.25.
CARPENTER, How the world is housed. Amer. Book Co., 60c.
CERVANTES, Don Quixote of the Mancha; retold by Parry. Lane, $1.50.
CLEMENS, Prince and the pauper. Harper, $1.75.
CUSTER, Boy general. Scribner, 50c.
DODGE, Hans Brinker. Century, $1.50.
DU CHAILLU, World of the great forest. Scribner, $2.00.
EGGLESTON, Hoosier school-boy. Scribner, $1.00.
HILL, Fighting a fire. Century, $1.50.
HOMER, Iliad; ed. by Lang, Leaf, & Myers. Macmillan, 80c.
HUGHES, Tom Browne's school days. Cranford ed. Macmillan, $1.50.
JENKS, Boy's book of explorations. Doubleday, $2.00.
KIPLING, Captains courageous. Century, $1.50.
LUCAS, Three hundred games and pastimes; or, What shall we do now? De La More Press, *6s.*
PERCY, The boy's Percy; ed. by Lanier. Scribner, $2.00.
PYLE, Men of iron. Harper, $2.00.
REPPLIER, Book of famous verse. Houghton, 75c.
ST. JOHN, How two boys made their own electrical apparatus. St. John $1.00.
SEAWELL, Twelve naval captains. Scribner, $1.25.

SETON, Biography of a grizzly. Century, $1.50.
THOMPSON, Boys' book of sports. Century, $2.00.
WYSS, Swiss family Robinson; ed. by Kingston. Dutton, $2.50.

GRADE 7

BEARD, Outdoor handy book. Scribner, $2.00.
BEARD, What to do and how to do it; American boys' handy book. Scribner, $2.00.
BENNETT, Master Skylark. Century, $1.50.
BULL, Fridtjof Nansen; tr. by Barnard. Heath, 30c.
BULLEN, Cruise of the Cachalot. Appleton, $1.50.
DAVIS, Stories for boys. Scribner, $1.00.
DU CHAILLU, Country of the dwarfs. Harper, $1.25.
GARLAND, Boy life on the prairie. Macmillan, $1.50.
HALE, Man without a country. Little, 50c.
HOLDER, The ivory king. Scribner, $1.75.
LAUGHTON, Sea fights and adventures. Longmans, $2.00.
MALORY, King Arthur and his knights; ed. by Lathrop. Baker & Taylor, $1.50.
QUILLER-COUCH, Historical tales from Shakespeare. Scribner, $1.50.
ROOSEVELT, Ranch life and the hunting-trail. Century, $2.50.
SCHWATKA, In the land of cave and cliff dwellers. Educ. Pub. Co., $1.25.
ROYDE-SMITH, Una and the Red cross knight, from Spenser's Faerie Queene. Dutton, $2.50.
STEVENSON, Kidnapped. Scribner, $1.50.
THACHER, Listening child. Macmillan, $1.25.
TOLSTOÏ, Where love is, there God is also. Crowell, 35c.

GRADE 8

BUXTON, Stories of Persian heroes. Crowell, $1.50.
CRAIK, John Halifax, Gentleman. Luxembourg ed. Crowell, $1.50.
BLACKMORE, Lorna Doone. Luxembourg ed. Crowell, $1.50.
CUSTER, Boots and saddles. Harper, $1.50.
CUSTER, Tenting on the plains. Harper, $1.50.
DANA, Two years before the mast. Houghton, $1.00.
DARTON, Tales of the Canterbury Pilgrims retold from Chaucer and others. Stokes, $1.50.
HOMER, Odyssey; in English prose by Butcher and Lang. Macmillan, 80c.
JENKS, Boy's book of explorations. Doubleday, $2.00.
KENNAN, Tent life in Siberia. Putnam, $1.25.
KINGSLEY, Westward Ho! Macmillan, $1.00.
LYTTON, Last days of Pompeii. Luxembourg ed. Crowell, $1.50.
MACAULAY, Lays of ancient Rome. Longmans, $1.25.
MANLY, English poetry. 1170–1892. Ginn, $1.50.

NORDHOFF, Whaling and fishing. Dodd, 40c.
PARKMAN, Oregon trail. Little, $2.00.
ROOSEVELT, Wilderness hunter. Putnam, $2.50.
ROTH, First book of forestry. Ginn, 75c.
SAINTINE, Picciola; or, The prison flower. Appleton, $1.50.
SCOTT, Ivanhoe, Dryburgh ed. Macmillan, $1.25.
SCOTT, Kenilworth. Dryburgh ed. Macmillan, $1.25.
STEVENSON, David Balfour. Scribner, $1.50.
WALLACE, Ben-Hur; a tale of the Christ. Harper, $1.50.

SUGGESTIVE READING FOR CHRISTMAS

Compiled by JESSIE BLACK and IRENE WARREN
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ESSAYS AND SERMONS

BROOKS, Christmas sermon. Century 25:179–183.
STEVENSON, A Christmas sermon (in Across the plains, p. 302).
WALLACE, The boyhood of Christ. Harper 74:3–18.
YONGE, Young folks' Bible history.

MISCELLANY

BEARD, How Christmas cards are made (in Wonderful stories of science).
St. Nicholas Christmas book.
WILTSE, Kindergarten stories and morning talks.

MISCELLANEOUS SELECTIONS IN ST. NICHOLAS

Christmas lights do fade away (picture). 23:177.
Christmas pictures. 34:106.
The mistletoe bough (ballad with living pictures for acting). 2:191.
MOUNT, On Christmas day (song). 19:236.
MURDOCK, A sixteenth century Christmas (drama). 16:145.
One hundred Christmas presents and how to make them. 3:103.
PENNELL, Christmas pantomimes. 15:180.
S. J. D., Christmas eve at Mother Hubbard's (a Christmas play for school or parlor). 25:256.
Santa Claus caught at last (picture). 26:135.

CHRISTMAS IN OTHER LANDS AND TIMES

AMERICA—COLONIAL

COFFIN, First years at Plymouth (in his Old times in the colony, p. 134).
EGGLESTON, Washington's Christmas gift (in his Great Americans for little Americans, p. 61).
HUNTER, A Christmas fox hunt in old Virginia. Outing, 1899. 23:274.
STANTON, Christmas on the Mayflower. St. Nicholas, 1900, 28:122.

ENGLAND

ADAMS, King's feast in Rufus's hall. St. Nicholas, 1884, 12:136.
CHAMBERS, Book of days. 2:733.
CHAMPLIN and BOSTWICK, Christmas sports (in Young folks' encyclopedia of games and sports, p. 190).

CORBIN, Middle English nativity. Harper, 1896, 94:4.
DOUGLAS, Ye Christmasse puddinge. St. Nicholas, 1898, 26:158.
EGGLESTON, St. Nicholas day and the bishops of Salisbury. St. Nicholas, 1877, 4:532.
IRVING, Christmas. Christmas eve. (in his Sketch book).
LOGSDAIL, Yuletide in an old English city. New England Mag., 1893, 9:383.
PENNELL, London Christmas pantomimes. St. Nicholas, 1888, 15:180.
REDDALL, Fact, fancy and fable, p. 125.
STRACHEY, Christmas eve and Christmas day at an English country house. Atlantic, 1894, 74:729.
STRUTT, Sports and pastimes of the people of England. (See index, under Christmas.)

SCOTLAND

SCOTT, Christmas in the olden time (in his Marmion, Introduction to Canto 6).
Yuletide in Shetland. Living Age, 1882, 152:161.

FRANCE

JANVIER, A Provençal Christmas postscript. Century, 1900, 37:179.
———, Christmas Kalends of Provence.
———, Christmas Kalends of Provence. Century, 1896, 31:265.
———, Nöels (in his Provençal Christmas postscript). Century, 1900, 37:183.
PEACOCK, Christmas customs in central France. Living Age, 1895, 207:813.
WRIGHT, Mistletoe gathering in Normandy. St. Nicholas, 1879, 6:117.

BELGIUM

Belgian Christmas Eve. Living Age, 1887, 172:567.

HOLLAND

DODGE, Hans Brinker.
KUIPER, St. Nicholas day in Holland. St. Nicholas, 1896, 24:253.

GERMANY

BERG, A Christmas eve in Germany. Scribner, 1871, 1:338.
A Christmas in Germany. Harper, 1852, 4:499.
A Christmas in Hamburg. Harper, 1859, 18:359.
FORBES, Christmas-tide with the Germans before Paris. Harper, 1886, 72:263.
LATIMER, Legend of St. Nicholas. Harper, 1886, 74:18.
TUTWILER, St. Nicholas day in Germany. St. Nicholas, 1876, 3:97.

SWITZERLAND

CESARESCO, An Alpine Christmas play. Atlantic, 1900, 86:794.

RUSSIA

Christmas in Russia. Review of Reviews, 1904. 29:343.
THOMAS, Babousca, a Russia legend of Christmas. St. Nicholas, 1898, 25:233.

SPAIN

HAY, Christmas in Spain. St. Nicholas, 1874, 1:122.

FAR NORTH

(The) King's Christmas, a legend of Norway. Scribner, 1876, 11:385.
LONGFELLOW, King Olaf's Christmas (in Longfellow's Complete poetical works, p. 255).
LONGFELLOW, King Willaf's drinking-horn. Harper, 1857, 16:15.
WOODBURY, Christmas in the Arctic regions. St. Nicholas, 1876, 3:157.

FAR SOUTH AND EAST

FEUDGE, Christmas in the Far East. St. Nicholas, 1876, 3:165.
CUMMING, Christmas in Calcutta. Living Age, 1883, 159:809.
SLADEN, Christmas letter from Australia (Stedman's Victorian anthology, p. 551).

POETRY

ALEXANDER, The adoration of the Wise Men (in Posy Ring, p. 257).
ARNOLD, St. Brandon (in Open sesame 3:47).
BAYLY, The mistletoe bough (in Open sesame 3:354).
BELL, Christmas thim times (dialect). Century 17:319.
BELLAMY and GOODWIN, Open sesame. Christmas selections, 1:212–21; 2:353–66; 3:348–56.
BENNETT, A Christmas song (in Stedman's Victorian anthology, p. 79).
BOWRING, What of the night? (in Stedman's Victorian anthology, p. 173).
BROOKS, Three Christmas chimes. Century 17:224.
BROWNING, R., Christmas eve (in Poetic and dramatic works, v. 4).
Christmas in the olden time (from Scott's Marmion).
BUTTS, The Christmas tree (in Posy ring, p. 265).
Christmas carol (in Open sesame 1:211).
Christmas garlands for American poems. Harper 16:1–18.
COOK, Christmas holly (in Posy ring, p. 273).
DELAND, The Christmas silence (in Posy ring, p. 260).
DODGE, An offertory (in Posy ring, p. 261).
DOMETT, Christmas hymn (old style, 1837, p. 143; new style, 1875, p. 144) (in Stedman's Victorian anthology).
———, Christmas hymn (in Open sesame 2:355).
FIELD, Christmas treasures (in With trumpet and drum, p. 115).
———, The peace of Christmas time (in With trumpet and drum, p. 51).
———, Why do the bells of Christmas ring? (in Posy ring, p. 261).
HENDRICKSON, Songs of Christmas. Century 11:237.
HERBERT, Christmas (in Poetical works, p. 944).
HOLLAND, A Christmas carol (in Stedman's American anthology, p. 235).
"I saw three ships" (in Open sesame 2:362).
"I saw three ships" (in Posy ring, p. 268).
"In excelsis gloria" (in Open sesame 2:364).
JACKSON, The legend of St. Christopher (in her Poems).
KETCHUM, Christmas carillons. Harper 62:1–7.

Knighting of the Sirloin of Beef by Charles II (in Open sesame 2:365–66).
LARCOM, Poetical works. A Christmas thought, p. 175. His birthday, p. 288.
LATIMER, Legend of St. Nicholas. Harper 74:18–22.
LONGFELLOW, Christmas bells (in Poetical works 3:132).
———, Christmas bells (in Complete poems, p. 319).
———, Christmas carol (in Poetical works 6:317).
———, Christmas carol (in Complete poems, p. 140).
———, Christmas carol (trans. from the Italian) (in Poetical works 6:432).
———, King Olaf's Christmas (in Poetical works 4:82).
———, King Olaf's Christmas (in Complete poems, p. 255).
———, The nativity of Christ (trans. from the Spanish) (in Poetical works 6:409).
———, The three kings (in Poetical works 3:118).
———, The three kings (in Complete poems, p. 378).
LOWELL, Christmas carol (in Poetical works, Household ed., p. 461).
LUCAS, The holly (in Book of verses for children, p. 31–39).
LUTHER, A cradle hymn (in Posy ring, p. 272).
MCCABE, Christmas night of '62 (in Stedman's American anthology, p. 421).
MACKAY, Under the holly bough (in Open sesame 2:359).
MILTON, Hymn to the Nativity (in Lang's Blue poetry book, p. 303).
———, Hymn to the Nativity (in Open Sesame 3:340–48).
MOORE, Christmas times (in Posy ring, p. 262).
———, Christmas times (in Stedman's American anthology, p. 15).
———, Christmas times (in Whittier's Child life, p. 147).
PHELPS, A Jewish legend (Wiltse Kindergarten stories).
POULSSON, Bird's Christmas sheaf (in Through the farm-yard gate).
———, Christmas (in In the child world).
RILEY, Das Kris Kindel (in Afterwhiles, p. 12–17).
———, "Last Christmas was a year ago." Century 15:217.
———, Little Johnt's Christmas (in Rhymes of childhood, p. 139).
———, Who Santa Clause was (in Rhymes of childhood, p. 60–61).
———, What Chris'mas fetched the Wigginses (in Green fields and running brooks, p. 154).
Santa Claus (in Posy ring, p. 269).
SCOLLARD, Ballad of Calnan's Christmas (in Ballads of American bravery, p. 165).
———, The holly song. Century 25:320.
SCOTT, Christmas in the olden times (in Open sesame 2:360).
———, Christmas song (in Open sesame 2:357–58).
———, The glorious song of old (in Open sesame 3:357–58).
SHAKESPEARE, Song of the holly (in Open sesame 2:363).
SLADEN, Christmas letter from Australia (in Stedman's Victorian anthology, p. 551).
SMITH, Neighbors of the Christ night (in Posy ring, p. 271).

SOUTHWELL, New prince, new pomp (in Open sesame 3:252).
SPOFFORD, Christmas peal. Harper 84:14.
STEVENSON, Christmas at sea (in Poems and ballads, p. 365).
SYMONDS, A Christmas lullaby (in Posy ring, p. 267).
TABB, The light of Bethlehem (in Poems, p. 79).
TENNYSON, The birth of Christ (in Open sesame 3:351).
———, Christmas bells (in In Memoriam).
———, Christmas bells (in Open sesame 3:348–49).
———, Christmas bells (in Poetical works, p. 226).
WATTS, Cradle song (in Posy ring, p. 258).
WESLEY, Christmas day (in Open sesame 2:353).
WHITTIER, Christmas carmen, p. 453; Christmas, 1888, p. 467; A star of Bethlehem, p. 417 (in Complete poetical works).
WIGGIN, Golden numbers. Contains: BROOKS, Oh, little town of Bethlehem, p. 648; Christmas carol, Old English, p. 650; DELAND, While shepherds watched their flocks by night, p. 637; DOMETT, A Christmas hymn, p. 646; FIELD, The three kings, p. 644; HEBER, Brightest and best of the sons of the morning, p. 661; HEMANS, Hymns for Christmas, p. 639; HERRICK, Ceremonies for Christmas, p. 658; HERRICK, The star song, p. 638; HOLLAND, A Christmas carol, p. 635; HOWITT, Old Christmas, p. 652; LONGFELLOW, The three kings, p. 641; MORRIS, Minstrels and maids, p. 654; MULOCK, God rest ye, merry gentlemen, p. 653; SCOTT, Christmas in England, p. 659; SOUTHWELL, New prince, new pomp, p. 640; TATE, While shepherds watched their flocks by night, p. 649.

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ARNOLD, Christmas bells. 21:282.
AUSTIN, The shepherds in Judea. 28:99.
BENJAMIN, Johnny's observations on Christmas eve. 23:204.
BURGESS, Christmas twice a year. 25:131.
BURKE, Santa Claus street in Jingletown. 24:245.
BUSH, Christmas songs of Caedmon. 23:145.
BUTTERWORTH, For Christmas day. 17:186.
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CONE, A Christmas sleigh ride. 21:149.
———, The little Christmas spy. 16:83.
DODGE, The picture (poem). 24:91.
Good news on Christmas morn. 3:177.
HARTLEY, A winter song. 10:81.
HOWE, The knight and the page. 7:99–102.
HUTCHESON, Christmas letter. 17:113.
Jemima. 32:164.
LARCOM, Visiting Santa Claus. 12:82–84.

McCULLOUGH, Christmas tree lights. 26:112.
Merry Christmas. 24:193.
MITCHELL, Christmas angels. 1:105.
MOSES, What does Johnny want? 27:149.
MURPHY, Introduction to Santa Claus (a true incident). 28:140.
O Santa San. 31:216.
PAINE, Cupid and Santa Claus. 26:253.
PERKINS, That little Christmas tree. 27:91.
PERRY, Christmas day. 10:92.
POULSSON, The 19th century (as sung by Santa Claus). 24:136.
RAYMOND, The raid of the Rafferty's, a Christmas legend. 26:193.
RUSSELL, A Christmas song. 4:90.
SANDERSON, The best tree. 24:164.
A Southern Christmas eve. 3:83.
SPOFFORD, The Christmas tree. 37:113.
STERLING, A Christmas eve thought. 23:169.
STONE, The pie and the clock. 26:113.
SWETT, The Christmas goblin. 24:171.
THOMAS, Babouscka (a Russian legend of Christmas). 25:233.
———, Christmas ashes. 37:231.
Trouble in the doll's house by last year's Christmas doll. 32:153.
TURNER, The Christmas day. 34:164.
WELLS, Christmas gifts. 26:233.
———, The lay of the Lady Lorraine. 25:193.
———, Pompey's Christmas. 27:154.
WIGGIN, The tardy Santa Claus. 23:255.

POETRY IN OTHER MAGAZINES

Bearer of glad tidings. Scribner 37:29.
BOTH-HENDRIKSEN, Songs of Christmas. Century 11:237.
Child Jesus. Harper 110:256.
Christmas folk song. Century 47:298.
RILEY, Last Christmas was a year ago. Century 15:217.

JUVENILE STORIES

ALCOTT, Under the mistletoe (in Eight cousins).
ANDERSEN, The fir tree (in Fairy tales).
ANDREWS, Christmas on the Rhine (in Seven little sisters).
———, Christmas times again for Louise (in Each and all).
DODGE, Hans Brinker.
HALE, The first Christmas present (in Wiltse Kindergarten stories).
HOWELLS, Christmas every day.
STOCKTON, Christmas truants (in Fanciful tales).
WALSH, Story of Santa Klaus.
WILTSE, Iddy Bung's April Christmas tree (in Kindergarten stories).

JUVENILE STORIES IN ST. NICHOLAS

ALTON, Children's Christmas club of Washington city. 15:146.
BELLEW, Christmas stars. 13:216.
BURR, A snowbound Christmas. 24:99.
GLADDEN, Santa Claus on a lark. 13:96.
JACKSON, Leon Maturin's Christmas eve. 4:123.
LYALL, How a street car came in a stocking. 23:101.
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THE RELATION OF THE PRESENT MOVEMENT FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TO THE TEACHING OF THE MECHANIC ARTS[1]

FRANK M. LEAVITT

It is well-nigh impossible to say anything new on the subject of industrial education. The report of your own state commission on Plans for the Extension of Industrial and Agricultural Training is one of the clearest and most significant statements of the existing situation which has yet appeared, and you are doubtless familiar with that report. If it failed in any particular, it was, perhaps, in neglecting to indicate the very valuable contribution to industrial education which our manual training, or some adequate development of it, might make within the existing school system.

That there is a decided tendency to emphasize the vocational aspects of education, few will deny. This tendency is to be observed in all grades of schools, from the elementary through the university. That we may utilize to the fullest extent, the brief time at our disposal, let us limit our field somewhat by reminding you of the following classification: Vocational education includes professional education, commercial education, agricultural education, household education, and industrial education. We shall confine our discussion to the relation of the teaching of the mechanic arts to industrial education, the education specifically adapted to the needs of the industrial worker.

In the development of things educational, one-third of a century cannot be considered a very long time, yet thirty-three years approximately cover the entire history of what we commonly designate as manual training, or the teaching of the mechanic arts, in this country. There had been earlier experiments in Pestalozzian methods, but these had come to nothing, or at all events, they have no connection with the movement to introduce handwork into the

[1] Read before the Wisconsin Teachers' Association ,November 10, 1911.

schools which took shape shortly after the Philadelphia Exposition in 1876.

It is impossible to understand the present movement for vocational education without a fairly clear conception of the history of manual training. Time will not permit a thoroughgoing analysis of the subject, but I will state, somewhat dogmatically, and as a basis for further discussion, what seem to me to be the significant facts.

Manual training was originally urged as industrial education; that is to say, the purpose of its introduction into the school curriculum was to teach the fundamentals of the trades. The report of a school committee in 1878 is fairly illustrative of the position commonly taken by school boards at that time: "The question of teaching trades in our schools is one of vital importance. If New England would maintain her place as the great industrial center of the country, she must become to the United States what France is to the rest of Europe, the first in taste, the first in design, the first in skilled workmanship. She must accustom her children from early youth to the use of tools, and give them a thorough training in the mechanic arts."

While laymen held this idea, many of the educators did not entirely concur with it. The introduction of manual training was opposed by the conservative educator on the ground that the specific function of the school was to dispense only such education as was broadly cultural, and preparatory for life only in a very general way.

To meet this objection the advocates of manual training claimed that instruction in the mechanic arts provided a very essential element of liberal culture which it was undoubtedly the business of the schools to supply. They said: "Manual training is needful for every individual, irrespective of his calling or professional career. The boy in the grades or in the high school is sent to the school shop, not because he is to be a carpenter. He is sent there though it be already clear that he is to be an attorney or a physician or a clergyman."

The advent of the so-called new psychology with its dependence on physiological phenomena greatly stimulated the introduction of

manual training for its general educational values. "Simply as an aid to co-ordination, manual training would justify itself were that the sole point of its educational bearing." "Handwork arouses the initiative, sets in motion the essential activities of the mind, attention, and will, and requires a correct expression of the will. Thus it is an important tool for the development of the intelligence, and the permanent retention of knowledge in the brain." Quotations of this kind could be multiplied indefinitely, but perhaps they are best summed up in the one catch phrase which was very commonly heard fifteen years ago, "Put the whole boy to school."

The rapidity of the early development of manual training and its acceptance by educators throughout the country are to be accounted for almost entirely on the ground that it was considered to be a form of general education, and that it accorded with the prevailing ideals of the schools.

The recent report of the committee of the National Education Association on "The Place of Industries in Public Education" says:

> At the present time, the great majority of manual training high schools—practically all of them notwithstanding the distinction in name—differ in no important educational particular from the other high schools in the United States; they admit pupils of the same general type, of the same age, and of the same preparatory training. These schools aim to develop the same type of intelligence, the same habits of thought, and the same kind of ability as do other high schools; and their graduates are found in the same wide variety of occupations. While the subjects taught are not identical, the manual training schools are, nevertheless, essentially schools of the college-preparatory type in which the instruction, mechanical as well as academic, aims to provide the mental equipment of the kind required by those who would continue by college-preparatory standards. The fundamental aim of these schools is a general training, and specific training for industrial occupation is incidental. . . . .

To understand the new movement for industrial education we must appreciate the fact that while, during the past thirty years, the curricula, the practices, and the appearances of our schools have changed wonderfully, nevertheless their ideals and their conception of the fundamental purposes of education have remained essentially the same.

The new conception of education inherent in the movement for vocational training is that diversified conditions of life and work

demand diversified education. It recognizes the fact that all cannot have the same education, that all cannot use, and do not need, and in fact do not want, the same education; that with educational food, as well as with food for the body, "One man's meat is another man's poison." The new ideal of education demands that the schools turn out their graduates as different as God intended them to be, and as their future happiness, success, and satisfaction, in their various vocational and social relations, require that they shall be. The education of the several individuals or groups is to be identical only in this, that the education of each shall be equally adequate, equally respected, and administered with equal intelligence and sympathy.

Thus we see that while manual training, as a part of general education, means a fraction of the education of all children, industrial education, as now conceived, means the complete and adequate education of the industrial worker.

The above statement will almost certainly be met with the objection that this means class education, and that class education or class distinctions of any kind are hateful to the true American. Nevertheless, the strength of the movement for industrial education comes from the belief that our educational machinery is out of harmony with our social and industrial organization.

Some of the more pertinent facts relating to the social organization may well be briefly considered. First of all will be found the wage system itself. As we know, the system places upon the individual the responsibility for his own and for his family's support. It is individualistic, not socialistic. It works well for the fortunate, but for many unfortunate it has worked such evil that it is frequently referred to as "wage slavery." At all events, it has produced two distinct classes with interests apparently widely divergent, if not diametrically opposed—the employers and the employed. We find also that it has led to an exceedingly unequal distribution, not only of wealth, but also of opportunity for securing personal happiness, comfort, and satisfaction in the fundamental experiences of life. Another factor is the factory system of production. Beneficent in many of its results as this system may be, it has, nevertheless, resulted in the degradation of

countless individuals by dooming them to the endless repetition of a single process and by its utilization of cheap labor, especially the labor of women and children. By ever increasing the magnitude of the scale of production, it has resulted in a permanency of status of multitudes of wage-earners.

If, with these social and economic conditions in mind, we examine our public-school systems, we are led to conclude that the ideals and machinery of a "leisure-class" education still persist to a very considerable degree. We find that our schools are shaped for those who go to the top. Perhaps there is no better illustration of the saying, "Unto everyone that hath shall be given, but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath," than that which is afforded by our public schools. They have been so successful in eliminating the unfit, "him that hath not," that probably 50 per cent of our pupils receive only the slightest benefit from the free, public "universal" education which we have fondly believed was the birthright of every child in America.

Furthermore, our schools so monopolize the time and strength of the children who do attend them that we have the spectacle of strong, able-bodied, and able-minded boys reaching seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, or twenty years of age without ever having done an honest day's work in their lives, a spectacle which is, to my mind, quite as disconcerting as the horrors of child labor.

Lest you feel that my arraignment of the public school is entirely unjust, I will remind you of what educators generally consider to be a fact; namely: that the secondary schools are dominated by the universities and by the university spirit. So good an authority as Governor Woodrow Wilson has intimated that the universities, in their turn, are dominated, not by the spirit of social democracy, but by the personality and the ideals of men of large wealth. He says: "Who constitute the trustees of your universities? For the most part, the men of large wealth and of important corporate connections. Do you realize these gentlemen of large wealth and great corporate connections, no matter how honest they are—as those that I have had to do with have been scrupulously honest men—no matter how well disposed toward the progress of education, nevertheless, have a particular point of view with regard to Ameri-

can life that is not the proper point of view for young men of America to be brought up under?"

What is meant by all this is that education is becoming more and more socialistic, and that the desires and needs of all grades and shades and classes of our body politic will soon be taken account of in determining the kind of educational machinery which the public authorities will administer and for which the public will liberally tax itself. The new conception of industrial education is simply this: a publicly supported education which has as much regard for the future success of the industrial workers as it has for that of the professional or managerial classes.

It means that we are coming to look at education from the point of view of the man in the street, as well as from the point of view of the liberally educated. It means that we are to think as carefully and sympathetically about the education of the pupil who can give but eight or ten entire and consecutive years to his schooling as we do about the education of one who can give eighteen or twenty years to that pursuit. It means that the people support the schools, and that they are beginning to feel that they should have something to say about their management. It is, indeed, a part of the general effort of the people to gain control of, and to benefit by, their own institutions.

Whether you agree with the foregoing propositions or not, I am confident that a careful analysis of the present demand for industrial education would lead you inevitably to similar conclusions. This demand comes from four rather distinct sources:

First.—The manufacturing interests desire industrial education because they feel the need of more efficient and intelligent workmen, and because they wish, so far as possible, to avoid increasing the cost of production incident to maintaining apprenticeship systems which, under the existing conditions, are expensive and somewhat unsatisfactory.

Second.—Representatives of organized labor are demanding industrial education partly because they feel the need of the training for the coming generation, and partly because they desire to prevent ill-considered and possibly antagonistic plans for industrial education, which might flood the labor market with cheap and partially trained labor.

Third.—Educators are advocating industrial education because they see the psychological value of the more direct appeal to the vital interests of thousands of our children, and because they believe that in this way the schools will be able successfully to develop a larger percentage of the children intrusted to their care.

Fourth.—Organized society, working for social betterment, is urging industrial education as one of the surest ways to eliminate the most potent causes of crime and unhappiness, unemployed ignorance.

This demand has resulted in the establishment of publicly supported industrial schools and classes in all parts of the country. I think we are justified in saying that they are regarded as "experiment stations," and yet few who know them will have any doubt as to their permanency, their progress, and their ultimate articulation with the public-school systems.

There are no two of these schools exactly alike and they range all the way from the pre-vocational work of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary school, to the thoroughgoing trade school for young men and women, noteworthy examples of which are to be seen right here in Milwaukee, in the Milwaukee School of Trades for Boys and the Milwaukee School of Trades for Girls.

These schools may be roughly classified as (1) pre-vocational or semi-industrial schools; (2) separate or independent industrial schools; (3) vocational high schools; (4) trade schools. The pre-vocational school and the vocational high school illustrate sincere attempts to incorporate real industrial training into our present school system, whereas the separate industrial school and the trade school frankly ignore the present system, at least so far as pre-requisite preparation is concerned.

There are also the half-time co-operative schools, and the continuation schools. The first of these provides opportunity for the boy or girl to do gainful work for an employer while pursuing the present school courses. The second is an opportunity offered by the school authorities to boys and girls, or young men and women who have already gone to work, to receive from four to eight hours a week of special education in special public-school classes.

It is impossible at this time to describe in detail the several types of schools, but I will enumerate five of the most distinctive features which are practically common to all types of industrial schools:

1. It is considered better to recognize, stimulate, and guide vocational interest in children of twelve to sixteen years of age than to try to suppress it. The value of the vocational motive in higher education is clearly recognized, and it is believed that industrial workers (who do not come at their life-work by the way of higher education) may equally profit by such incentive.

2. These schools recognize a twofold purpose in industrial education. The first, and perhaps the most important in the more elementary grades, is to prolong the school life of the child; the second is better to equip him for his initial entry into his vocational life. Of the two purposes the one most prominent in the minds of the pupils is the getting of a training which has real economic value, while the one appealing to the teacher is the giving of that benefit which may result from two or three additional years of contact with the ideals of school life.

3. The vocational motive and the vocational work are made paramount and central. Around this center is grouped and correlated all the work of the school, both handwork and bookwork. The bookwork is given with less elaboration, and all superfluous matter is greatly reduced or entirely eliminated.

4. The school day is lengthened to six, seven, or eight hours to provide for participation in, instead of mere instruction about, industrial work. The product system is generally made, therefore, the basis of the handwork.

5. The principle of a proportional subdivision of the time of all pupils is followed. In the broadest professional training the individual's education consists of three rather distinct periods. The first is intended to give a broad general training and extends from the beginning of school to about the third year in high school. The second period is intended to give a broad but somewhat defined or restricted groundwork for the specialty such as is afforded, for example, in the case of the future lawyer, by the study of history, languages, the political and social sciences, etc. This period extends from the middle of the high school to the beginning of senior college

work. The third period consists of relatively narrow and intensively specialized training. The plan of industrial education demands a somewhat similar distribution of the school time of the future industrial worker, the length of each period being proportional to the probable total time to be spent in school. The minimum requirement is as follows: First, a period covering the first six elementary grades. Second, a period covering at least the seventh and eighth grades. The minimum amount of time devoted to the third period should be at least one year. In no case should this period, the period of intensive training for entry into vocational life, be omitted, but where more time is available, both the second and third periods may be materially extended.

This briefly describes the movement for vocational education. As before stated, the report of your own commission discusses it in much greater detail. In stating the problem it has succeeded in giving practically all the pertinent facts, and in excluding a mass of material which is commonly introduced without any other effect than to cloud the issue. This is especially true regarding the statement of the need for industrial education, and the lessons to be learned from the experience of Germany; the analysis of the part-time work of Cincinnati, Fitchburg, and Beverly; the discussion of evening schools; and the insistence on the major necessity of educating the industrial *worker* rather than the officers of industry.

In suggesting solutions of the problem, the report has taken the strongest possible position in regard to administration. It has avoided the mistake of the first Massachusetts commission in demanding "separate" schools, and also the earlier mistake of believing that "general educational values," the end sought by the traditional school, will serve effectively the present need. The attitude of the report is most commendable regarding the need of modern apprenticeship laws; the qualifications of teachers; the necessity of adapting methods to local conditions; the importance of advisory boards; the correlation of industry and education; the equity and good policy of treating sympathetically the wishes of organized labor; and the need of liberal financial support.

I have been asked to discuss the relation of this movement to the teaching of the mechanic arts. It seems to me that, if I have

succeeded in setting forth the facts with any clearness, the relation which exists *today* must be evident. As a part of the general educational scheme which has proved to be satisfactory for perhaps 15 per cent of our pupils, those who move happily and without retardation through the several grades, the teaching of the mechanic arts is as effective as the instruction which is commonly given in the languages, in mathematics, or in the sciences. As "industrial education" it is as valuable as these subjects but certainly it is not usually more specifically so. Whether, for these pupils, it need to be made so is a debatable question, but the more pertinent question, for us, and indeed for manual-training teachers generally, is this: "Shall we continue to interest ourselves mainly in the education, of the 15 per cent who go well on toward the top, or shall we rather devote our energies to helping on the well-defined movement to greatly increase the efficiency of the education of the 85 per cent?" Frankly, my sympathies are with the latter problem, and my belief in the peculiar fitness of manual-training teachers to help in its solution is strong.

Referring again to the report of your commission, I would say that in only one respect is it disappointing. Throughout the entire discussion, it seemed evident that the commission fully realized the complete failure of the present school system to meet even the smallest needs of a large number of our school children. I refer to those leaving school at fourteen years of age from the fourth, or fifth, or sixth grade. Your commission evidently saw that the remedy, to be effective, must minister to the needs of these children and that, to secure this end, there must be brought about, to use the words of the report, "the betterment of school conditions in general." It does not seem to me, however, that the plans proposed by the commission reach the root of the matter in this particular.

I believe that the introduction of "*pre*-apprentice" or "*pre*-vocational" work in the schools is more important for large numbers of these children than the establishment of industrial, technical, or trade schools. It seems to me that even the continuation school will not benefit largely the boy who has been so hopelessly retarded that his fourteenth birthday finds him in one of the lower grades.

That boy has been a "dead one" for two or three years. Pre-apprentice work for such boys, beginning *before* fourteen, will undoubtedly serve to deter them from leaving school by creating an industrial interest which further training alone will satisfy.

It is in this phase of the new movement that manual-training teachers are peculiarly fitted to give invaluable aid. Here an adequate appreciation of industrial and social realities and of pedagogical principles are alike necessary, and this appreciation is more likely to be possessed by manual-training teachers than by any body of men and women of which I have any knowledge. If manual-training teachers could be empowered by the school authorities to give the right kind of manual training to the right children at the right time and in the right amount, there is no question in my mind that manual training would have a very considerable industrial value. Furthermore, it would be the means of postponing in this part of the country for a generation, and perhaps indefinitely, many of the acute problems which the promoters of industrial education in the East are finding so difficult of solution.

If there is anything certain in the immediate educational future it is this: that radical modifications of existing systems of grading and of courses of study, in both the elementary and the secondary schools, will be effected. It is also probable that the basis of secondary education will be made the subject of scientific study and that the sphere of the secondary school will be considerably extended, both downward and upward. It is clear that these modifications will create new conditions to which manual training, in common with all other subjects in the curriculum, will have to be adjusted. Here is something which all manual-training teachers must meet sooner or later, and, as it involves such widespread educational improvement for the less fortunate members of society, it is a problem which, I believe, should engage their eager and interested co-operation.

THE EFFICIENCY OF THE CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL

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The earliest argument in favor of the consolidation of rural schools was its economy. But experience has shown that consolidated schools cost rather more than the one-teacher schools. The more recent argument in their favor is that they are more efficient in securing educational results. This claim is for the most part based upon general appearances rather than upon actual statistical evidence.

The present writer during a visit to Delaware County, Indiana, in which consolidated schools have existed for more than a decade, and in which they are as well developed as in any other county in the country, attempted to secure some statistical data from the records of the county superintendent showing the relative efficiency of the consolidated schools of that county as compared with the ungraded one-teacher schools. The records of the office related only to attendance and scholarship as shown by the eighth-grade examinations given at the end of the school year in both graded and ungraded schools.

Attendance statistics were secured from six graded consolidated schools each having from four to eight teachers. Similar statistics were obtained from thirty-four one-teacher rural schools taken at random having an aggregate attendance about equal to that of the six consolidated schools. The yearly term for most of these schools was one hundred and forty days. Where the length of the term varied slightly from this number, as in a few cases, the figures were reduced to the 140-day basis.

The average number of days attended by each student was, in the consolidated schools, 111.1 days; and in the ungraded rural schools, 107.1 days, a difference in attendance of four days in favor of the consolidated schools. In the latter the pupils attended on

an average 79.4 per cent of the time; while in the ungraded schools they attended 76.5 per cent of the time, a difference of 3 per cent in the average record of attendance. If this difference were uniformly distributed through the grades, it would be too slight to be of significance.

The attendance was then studied by grades in order to see whether the consolidated schools tended to hold the pupils better during the latter grades of the elementary school courses. The results are shown by Table I.

TABLE I

ATTENDANCE BY GRADES

Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Average attendance in consolidated schools	98	111	110	113	111	120	123	120
Average attendance in ungraded schools	96	105	110	111	111	115	107	109
Difference in favor of consolidated schools	2	6	0	2	0	5	16	11
Percentage of attendance in consolidated schools	70	79	79	81	79	86	88	86
Percentage of attendance in ungraded schools	68	75	79	79	79	82	76	78
Difference in favor of consolidated schools	2	4	0	2	0	4	12	8

This table shows that the attendance is not appreciably different for the first five grades but that the attendance during the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades is much better in the consolidated schools than in the one-teacher schools. The attendance in the seventh and eighth grades is from 8 to 12 per cent better than in the corresponding grades of the ungraded schools; and, at the same time, it is altogether probable, though we have no figures at hand upon this point, that the consolidated school has also held a larger proportion of its pupils during the seventh and eighth grades. If this is the case, this means a double gain in favor of the consolidated school for the grammar grades. This is significant since one's serious education for adulthood scarcely begins before the seventh grade.

The figures indicate that the consolidated school is more attractive to the students of the grammar grades than is the ungraded

school. This is perhaps due to the greater variety of the work that can be offered, which is coming to include manual training, domestic science, elementary agriculture, nature-study, drawing, and music—a series of activities that can be directed very inadequately in the usual one-teacher school. Further, the consolidated schools offer a better stepping-stone for the high school. The township high school is usually in the same building. Naturally the pupils are made familiar with the nature of a high school, a thing not possible in a one-teacher ungraded school.

On the side of scholarship the records of the county superintendent's office showed the result of the final eighth-grade examination given at the end of the school year to those who had finished the work of the elementary school. The questions were prepared in the office of the state superintendent and were therefore uniform for all the schools of the county. The grading was done in the office of the county superintendent and therefore the grading was uniform throughout the county. The examination results are therefore altogether comparable in all the schools.

In grading the papers of the pupils in the superintendent's office, arithmetic was first marked; and if anyone failed in arithmetic the remaining papers were not marked. For this reason the arithmetic series was the only complete series that could be obtained for that county.

The average grade in arithmetic for the candidates from the consolidated schools was 77.7 per cent. The average grade of the candidates from the ungraded one-teacher schools was 76.7 per cent. These figures are for all practical purposes identical. The distribution of the students along the percentage scale in the two classes of schools is also practically identical as shown by Table II.

The figures seem to indicate that in arithmetic, at least for this particular year, the efficiency of the consolidated schools is no greater than that of the ungraded one-teacher schools.

In the consolidated schools 61 students took the final examinations; of these 45 passed and 16 failed. The percentage successful was 73.8 per cent. In the ungraded schools 71 students took the final examinations; of these 52 were successful and 19 failed.

The percentage successful was 73.2. The percentages of successful students in the two classes of schools are the same.

This equality in the percentages of successful students in the uniform eighth-grade examinations in both kinds of schools appears to indicate that what is true for arithmetic is true of every other study covered by the examinations. The scholarship produced by the two types of schools is not appreciably different.

One ought, however, to know the average ages of the pupils. It is not improbable that the graduates of the ungraded schools were considerably more mature than those of the consolidated schools. Also a study of the relative elimination of pupils is necessary; it is possible that the graduates of the ungraded schools were somewhat more of a picked lot than those of the consolidated schools.

TABLE II

FREQUENCIES OF THE DIFFERENT GRADES

GRADES	NUMBER OF STUDENTS		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS	
	Consolidated	Ungraded	Consolidated	Ungraded
1— 10	0	0	0.0	0.0
11— 20	2	1	3.7	1.5
21— 30	1	2	1.9	3.1
31— 40	1	2	1.9	3.1
41— 50	1	2	1.9	3.1
51— 60	2	3	3.7	4.4
61— 70	10	12	18.4	18.4
71— 80	8	10	14.9	15.4
81— 90	12	13	22.2	20.0
91—100	17	20	31.4	31.0
	54	65	100.0	100.0

Although the present study is based upon the figures for the greater part of a county, and that a county in which the movement is as well developed as anywhere in the country, yet the quantity of data is insufficient for conclusions. If more extended studies should arrive at the same results, many of the more substantial claims of the defenders of the movement would be nullified. Thus it is urged, for example, in the *Report of the Commissioner of Education of Ohio* for 1908 that, among other things, consolidation "insures a much better average daily attendance, and greatly

reduces the cases of tardiness"; "gives an opportunity for better classification of the schools and grading of pupils"; "encourages supervision"; "limits the field of the teacher's work and thus permits better preparation"; "gives few classes to each teacher and longer recitation periods"; and "secures better teachers." These, however, are not ends in themselves, but only means to an end. If they do not secure improved educational results, they do not constitute arguments in favor of consolidation.

The foregoing considerations are presented in no critical spirit. The writer is of the opinion that the many problems of rural education are not to be solved without consolidation, grading, and division of labor. But the argument to be used in promoting the movement must be other than the cost per school child, or the ability of the pupils to pass examinations in arithmetic, geography, and history.

The writer recently visited two agricultural counties, lying side by side and similar in all important respects. In one of these counties a progressive county superintendent had brought about consolidation in half the schools of his county. In the other county, a conservative superintendent had blocked all of the efforts of the advocates of consolidation with two simple arguments: consolidated schools are more expensive per capita; and they produce no greater scholarship as shown by the uniform state examinations. The writer doubted the accuracy of the superintendent's figures; and to test the matter, took the data above mentioned from the records of a county in which consolidation has been looked upon favorably and has been given opportunity to prove its worth. Contrary to expectations, the figures appear on their face to support the contentions of the conservative superintendent.

It is on the basis of such arguments as these that the major portion of our rural population and also the major portion of their school officials oppose the consolidation movement. In many places where the movement has attained considerable growth, it is coming to be looked upon with some disfavor by former supporters, since it seems to be neither cheaper nor more efficient. The argument appears to them to be based upon accurate mathematical considerations, and to be incontestable.

The percentage successful was 73.2. The percentages of successful students in the two classes of schools are the same.

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	54	65	100.0	100.0

Although the present study is based upon the figures for the greater part of a county, and that a county in which the movement is as well developed as anywhere in the country, yet the quantity of data is insufficient for conclusions. If more extended studies should arrive at the same results, many of the more substantial claims of the defenders of the movement would be nullified. Thus it is urged, for example, in the *Report of the Commissioner of Education of Ohio* for 1908 that, among other things, consolidation "insures a much better average daily attendance, and greatly

reduces the cases of tardiness"; "gives an opportunity for better classification of the schools and grading of pupils"; "encourages supervision"; "limits the field of the teacher's work and thus permits better preparation"; "gives few classes to each teacher and longer recitation periods"; and "secures better teachers." These, however, are not ends in themselves, but only means to an end. If they do not secure improved educational results, they do not constitute arguments in favor of consolidation.

The foregoing considerations are presented in no critical spirit. The writer is of the opinion that the many problems of rural education are not to be solved without consolidation, grading, and division of labor. But the argument to be used in promoting the movement must be other than the cost per school child, or the ability of the pupils to pass examinations in arithmetic, geography, and history.

The writer recently visited two agricultural counties, lying side by side and similar in all important respects. In one of these counties a progressive county superintendent had brought about consolidation in half the schools of his county. In the other county, a conservative superintendent had blocked all of the efforts of the advocates of consolidation with two simple arguments: consolidated schools are more expensive per capita; and they produce no greater scholarship as shown by the uniform state examinations. The writer doubted the accuracy of the superintendent's figures; and to test the matter, took the data above mentioned from the records of a county in which consolidation has been looked upon favorably and has been given opportunity to prove its worth. Contrary to expectations, the figures appear on their face to support the contentions of the conservative superintendent.

It is on the basis of such arguments as these that the major portion of our rural population and also the major portion of their school officials oppose the consolidation movement. In many places where the movement has attained considerable growth, it is coming to be looked upon with some disfavor by former supporters, since it seems to be neither cheaper nor more efficient. The argument appears to them to be based upon accurate mathematical considerations, and to be incontestable.

The method of measuring results by examination in the standard subjects, however, and by mere count of individuals, leaves out of consideration a number of essential matters. The examinations referred to above are drawn up to meet the needs of ungraded schools and fail to measure many of the most important results secured by graded schools. In the latter there is 30 to 40 per cent more time given to recitation, discussion, shop and field work under the teacher's immediate direction. In the proportion that a pupil's work with the teacher is better than study periods, to that degree must the graded work secure better results. And yet, the examinations may be so designed that the extra results do not reveal themselves in the percentages received in the textbook subjects.

Social conditions also are demanding many subjects that can be given only in graded schools. All rural schools, for example, should teach agriculture and household science. In order that the teacher have the necessary vocational attitude of mind, there must be a man for the one subject and a woman for the other. While a young lady teacher in an ungraded school might teach textbook agriculture in such a way as to enable her pupils to pass the state examination in proper form, yet the actual results would undoubtedly be far inferior to those secured by a special teacher of agriculture in a consolidated school. The situation would be just reversed in the case of the teaching of household science. Efficient rural education cannot be accomplished without at least two teachers for each school.

Another result not measured by the examination tests is the social education that comes from belonging to a large school community of two hundred children and eight teachers, both men and women, rather than to a small district community of twenty-five children and one teacher. If the "country-life movement" is ever to check the stream of migration from farm to city, it must provide social education and social opportunities of an attractive sort for the rural youth. It must socialize the country; and the consolidated school appears to be a long step in this direction.

Other desirable results not measured by the examination are: (1) the greater number of pupils held through the eighth grade; (2) the greater number directed into the rural high school, a necessary

preliminary to the dissemination of agricultural information through the country; (3) the improved health conditions of pupils, due to more sanitary buildings and equipment and better opportunities for efficient medical inspection.

The purpose of this brief sketch is to show the apparent soundness of the argument so frequently used to block the movement for consolidation; and to indicate the ways in which it is essentially unsound because of its leaving out of consideration a number of matters which are probably as important as the intellectual content acquired from textbooks in the so-called standard subjects.

STUDIES IN PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

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III. APPLICATION

One of the most urgent problems of present-day education is that of training pupils to meet the practical issues of life. Knowledge is of no value in the opinion of the ordinary man unless it can be applied. The school is urged to eliminate from the course of study everything which has no bearing on business or health or other practical interests. Our arithmetics must have examples which show the applications of addition and subtraction to buying and selling. We must put into arithmetic more measurement because this can be used. In geography it is the same. We must eliminate the fruitless discussions of boundaries and the long lists of names and study routes of travel and the lines of trade. In the high school we must emphasize science and reduce the attention to literature. In all schools we must give a place to handwork.

This demand for practical applications is no mere academic plea. School boards are calling upon teachers and superintendents to show reasons for this and that type of instruction in the schools. Merchants and manufacturers are devoting time to the discussion of educational problems and are suggesting trade training or the shortening of the course. Parents are withdrawing their children from the schools as early as the law will allow, confident that more valuable training will be gained through contact with the shop or store or farm than from continued schooling. Pupils are restless and inattentive because they do not see what use it is to study that which is offered in the schools.

This extreme emphasis on practical applications is in contrast with the assumption which was formerly the accepted assumption of the school. It used to be regarded as the duty of the school merely to prepare in a somewhat remote way for later life. It was

thought that the child should learn to read in school and that later in life he would find uses for reading. So too with number ideas and with geography. These should be cultivated in the school, not as practical arts, but as systems of knowledge. The practical arts were thought of as in some sense different from the knowledge taught in the schools. Indeed, knowledge or theory was often described as wholly different from practical application and skill.

When the urgent demand for practical training encounters the old-time attitude of the school that education is a remote and indirect preparation for later life, some readjustment becomes necessary. The readjustments which are being worked out today are of various types. For purpose of illustration we may refer to three typical efforts along these lines.

First, there is the short-term trade school. This institution goes about the task of making a tradesman of the boy with the greatest possible directness. Here is a boy who would leave school if he were obliged to go on with reading and arithmetic; let us make a carpenter or a mason of him, recognizing that skill in one of these trades will make him a more efficient citizen. Training in a trade is here substituted for book-learning and all the common school subjects. Skill with the saw and hammer is capable of direct application in the urgent practical world where the student must make his living. Substitute skill for knowledge and abandon the effort to make the boy or girl skilful through knowledge.

One cannot consider this first suggestion without realizing that it is based on a deep-seated pessimism regarding the ordinary school course. The ordinary course has an aim which is supposed to be much higher than the mere acquisition of skill. Reading is supposed to give the individual an outlook on the world which will include a correct view of the need and value of skill and industry and will arouse the worker to the highest efforts, but will at the same time give a comprehension of the trade. The short-term trade school says, in effect, the supposition that reading is of value has been overdone. It is better for at least a part of our population that no further emphasis be laid on reading. Their reading is not adequate to guide them in the acquisition of skill. Their reading has not fitted them to make a satisfactory living. Put an end to

teaching reading, make a radical change and teach something very different.

If the substitution of pure trade training for our present educational program should become common, it would mean the most radical change in the social treatment of children that has ever been worked out. The most impressive evidence that this would mean an abandonment of our present ideas about the significance of education appears when one considers how little industry stimulates those kinds of intellectual activity which the school aims to cultivate. The ordinary plumber is not stimulated by the experiences which he encounters to study geometry or chemistry or even to read the mechanical journals. The fact is that the more skilful a man becomes, the less likely he is to seek intellectual aids in his work. Trades do not lead workmen to study. The man who reads about the materials which he uses brings the motive for reading into the trade, rather than finds that motive in his practical life.

A second typical suggestion which has been made is the suggestion that certain practical lines of activity be added to the course of study or be substituted for a part of the course. Thus manual training is to take the place of some of the history or a part of the grammar. The use of tools is to be taught while at the same time the essential subjects are kept in their former places in the school program. For the girls cooking is to become a part of school training.

This suggestion conforms more closely to the common notion about what a school ought to do. Some local disputes arise as to how far the new subjects should be allowed to encroach on the old, but in general the new courses and the old are both more or less respected. Yet even this respect for both types of work is colored by a feeling that they are at bottom different. Teachers of the manual arts are looked upon as different in their interests and methods from teachers of reading and grammar and arithmetic. While there is a great deal of discussion about reconciling the two types of work and relating them and deriving motives for one out of the other, the fact remains that no successful fusion has been achieved. Training for knowledge, for reading, and for number

work continues to be one kind of training; training for shopwork and cooking is of another type.

Finally, there is the suggestion that there be a frank division of the pupil's time and energy such that he shall spend part of his time in the school and part in some practical work of the world. He shall go into a shop and work in wood or metal, or she shall go into a store and clerk or into a kitchen and cook, but while thus engaged in practical activity, the pupil shall withdraw from the shop or store for a few hours each week and study in some school.

This third suggestion, like the other two, and perhaps more clearly than either of the others, recognizes a difference in character and in spirit between the two types of training. The shop and the store are practical institutions, bent on giving skill as soon as possible. The part-time class in the school supplements the shop with something that the shop cannot give. Together the shop and school cultivate two distinct sides of the child's nature.

This part-time plan differs from the trade-school plan in two essentials. First, this plan does not lay on the school the obligation of doing the practical work. Furthermore, the part-time plan is not wholly pessimistic about the value of the conventional school courses. The part-time plan recognizes schoolwork as fulfilling a function of its own. It limits the amount of schoolwork, to be sure, but admits its value.

As contrasted with the manual-training plan, the part-time plan recognized from the beginning the fundamental and abiding distinction between trade training and schoolwork. It goes so far as to give the supervision of the two types of training to two wholly separate institutions. The hope of the advocates of manual training that handwork will some day be merged into ordinary school work is here abandoned. The school is set off very sharply from the shop and the store. The school is to co-operate with the shop and the store but never to confuse its mission with theirs.

It is not the primary purpose of this paper to advocate or condemn any of the plans above discussed. It is the purpose of this study to discover and evaluate the principles which underlie these various experiments in school organization.

One principle which comes out with perfect clearness in each of

the above described suggestions is the principle that practical skill cannot be identified with conventional school courses. Put in specific terms, we may assert that reading can never be identified with shopwork. The manual-training movement has striven faithfully to correlate the two as intimately as possible, but has failed to unite them in any complete way. The part-time school and the short-term trade school recognize the difference without reserve.

The general principle which thus grows out of experience in school organization is that some adjustment must be made between practical applications and theoretical studies other than that which involves the identification of the two. There must be some arrangement of the work in such a sequence as to allow theoretical training to precede practical training or follow it so as to maintain the distinctive advantages of each kind of training.

A concrete example of such a sequence can be described in the case of reading. In the primary grades reading is taught as a process of recognizing words. The children have to learn certain forms of perception, and have to connect with these forms of perception certain articulations. As they progress through the second and third year, it becomes less and less necessary for them to emphasize the formal side of reading. They acquire the mechanics of reading and establish a well-organized habit. As soon as this habit is once established, the pupils grow restless if they are required to go on with more reading of the same type as that which they have taken in the first years. There should be a change in the motive for reading, and there should be a change in the method of instruction. The reading should be employed as a means of introducing the pupil to large bodies of information which will be of some advantage to him in his later practical life.

In such a case as this the relation between theoretical training of the early years and practical applications is such that application of reading follows reading. The term "application" is used in this case in the broad sense, and includes not merely the application of reading to some form of handwork, but also the application of the relatively simple art of reading to higher and more mature forms of experience. It is quite as much an application of reading when

we require the pupil to use reading for the sake of acquiring geographical knowledge as it is when we require him to use his reading in understanding directions which are given to him in the shop or in the cooking-class.

In none of these cases, however, is application identical as a mental process with the first intellectual efforts involved in acquiring the ability to read. The acquisition of the ability to read depends upon close attention to the letters and words and to the articulations which are necessary in uttering the words which are seen on the page. The center of attention, therefore, is upon the page, and upon the formal side of the reading process. So limited is the scope of the pupil's attention that there is scant opportunity in the early stage of reading for him to look beyond the printed page and see the significance of the passage. Later, after the art of reading has matured, the child finds it unnecessary to give close attention to the formal side of the process. When he looks at a printed page with its succession of words, he is able immediately to connect with the printed word the appropriate articulation. He is now free to allow his mind to go beyond the printed symbols to the meaning. The extent to which he can apprehend the meaning differs in different stages of the mental development.

In making the transition to application it is important that the instruction begin with simple opportunities to apply reading. Later the application should become more and more complex and more and more intricate.

The school has in the past given too little attention to the special forms of mental activity which are involved in the application of reading. Pupils have been allowed to go out of the elementary schools with the ability to read, but they have never had their attention drawn to the fact that this ability would help them to acquire the information that they need to guide them in the mechanical arts which they take up as a means of livelihood. The fact is that pupils who leave the school at the end of the sixth grade very seldom help themselves in later life by using the power which they have. This is partly due to the fact that they do not know that there is a body of written and printed material which would be of value to them, and it is partly due to the fact that they have

never acquired the habit of carrying their reading process beyond the earliest formal stages. The school ought to show them that there is a body of material other than poetry and literary prose. The school ought also to indicate to the children that such reading as they do in poetry and literary prose is not intended to limit them to this type of material, but is intended rather to develop their powers so that in later life they may have independent use of the ability to read. There are certain definite suggestions which can be made along these lines. The writer knows of a case in which the teacher who found it difficult to interest boys in the middle of the elementary school in reading went to a neighboring manufacturing concern and secured copies of their trade catalogues. These catalogues were brought into the school and made the subject of reading. Instantly the boys recognized, as they never had recognized before, that the art of reading had direct relation to practical life. The advantage of such training consisted not merely in the information which they acquired about that particular industry, but also in the habit which they cultivated of using the power of reading to meet all of the practical emergencies of life.

In the same way girls may be introduced to books about kitchen implements and textiles. Either one of these subjects can be made of interest to the girls, and in addition they find in the perusal of this type of material an enlargement of the reading habit which will make them conscious of its value in a way which they are not likely to understand from the study of verse and literary prose alone.

In some cases perhaps the applications which will justify the formal work of the school can be made at the same time that the pupil is acquiring the power to read or use number. There is great danger, however, that we shall make an effort to accomplish something in the way of application before the power to read or the power to use number is sufficiently mature to justify the larger effort to carry it out into practical fields. Thus in an earlier paper, attention was drawn to the impossibility of correlating arithmetic and shopwork before there is any maturity of arithmetical interest. In the same way the pupil who is unable to read for meaning, because his whole attention is absorbed in looking

at the words and articulating them, never can acquire a piece of information which calls for attention to the meaning of these words. He must have a sufficiently mature power of reading and of using numbers so that he may have freedom of attention for the higher step of application. For this reason, it is not possible to introduce practical applications too early in the grades. Indeed, there is no necessity in the lowest grades of the elementary school of any large practical motives to encourage the children to acquire reading and writing and number ideas. Children in these lower grades are very docile and willing to take up any kind of material that society sees fit to furnish. During these earlier periods it is advantageous, therefore, that they should be taught to read and use numbers. They are very eager to be introduced to the printed page, and they are very willing to do a large amount of drudgery in the acquisition of number ideas. It is a mistake to surfeit them at this time with outside ideas, and with industrial projects which are too mature for them to comprehend. They should be kept in contact with the social arts which will later make possible some view of the practical world. The practical world will appeal to them very much more as they become mature. Children who have reached the fourth or fifth grade are very likely to leave school just because the practical world makes a strong appeal to them, and they do not see the utility at that time of further lessons in reading and number work. If the earlier grades of the school waste time and energy in the effort to bring to the attention of young children bodies of information for which they are not prepared, and if now in the fourth or fifth grade they are driven to learn something about reading and number in order that they may have a rudimentary possession of these arts, they are likely to become discouraged, and exhibit that discouragement by abandoning the school for practical experience.

The change which should be made in our elementary school in conformity to the principle of application should be made, therefore, in the fourth and fifth years, and from that point onward. The methods of teaching reading and number below this period are well organized and successful. The waste in elementary education appears from the fourth grade on. It is a waste of much of the time of the children who remain in school, and it is also a

waste of the community's efforts because the training of the upper grades does not reach as many children as it should.

In the foregoing discussion special emphasis has been laid upon reading. Arithmetic has been mentioned incidentally as a form of training which also should wait for its application. Writing, drawing, and also a direct acquaintance with space through some simple problems in constructive geometry, might properly be recommended under this principle as the best materials for the lower grades of the elementary school.

In an earlier paper the present writer suggested that there is too much haste in the introduction of concrete material into the school. The meaning of that statement in terms of this principle of application is that concrete opportunities to use one's knowledge should not be offered before the child has sufficient mastery of the arts of reading, writing, and number to justify the school in its efforts to deal with concrete material. Children have plenty of concrete ideas when they come to school. The difficulty is to show them how this concrete experience should be worked over and intellectualized. The school should supplement the child's ordinary experience by showing him new methods of dealing with these experiences. The school could never accomplish its purpose by devoting itself exclusively to shop training and handwork. These are essentially concrete forms of experience. Here again it is more important that the child should learn how to plan his work and how to record his plans than that he should be brought merely into contact with the materials of shopwork. The concrete in education has its proper place, but that proper place is at the point of application of powers which have been gained. These powers are essentially intellectual in character, and they need at first relatively very little concrete material on which to work.

The best types of concrete material to use in the early stages of any instruction are materials which are so simple that the attention of the pupil will not be distracted by the material itself. It must be admitted of course that it would be quite impossible to teach practical ideas without having some objects for the pupils to handle. These objects should, however, be very simple objects such as splints for arithmetic, or the immediate objects of the

environment for writing and reading. It is quite impossible to expect the pupils to employ number ideas which are altogether immature, and at the same time recall, through imagination, objects that are remote and relatively unfamiliar. There is nothing concrete about an example in interest and percentage to the child who does not understand numbers well enough to spend some mental energy thinking about interest and percentage. Indeed, it may be doubted whether most children in the elementary school have sufficient imagery to make it possible for them to use at any time intelligently such problems as those which are involved in bank transactions. Simple, concrete material as illustrating mental processes may therefore be advocated without leading to the demand that we use at all times in elementary instruction concrete material. Here again a distinction of importance can be drawn between material which illustrates and material which furnishes an opportunity for the application of mature forms of thought. The illustrative material is present for the purpose of cultivating a form of thought. The material to which one applies his powers is introduced for an entirely different purpose, and his mental attitude toward it is entirely different. In the one case the attention is upon the process, and not upon the concrete material, while in the other case, attention is chiefly upon the concrete material itself.

In conclusion, it may be said by way of summary that it has been the purpose of this article to point out the importance of doing more work in the elementary school in the direction of making schoolwork practical in character. The school must itself discover to the child the possibilities of using the training which he has received; that is, the school should make training in application a special problem to be worked out after the child has cultivated powers which he can apply.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The Aggressive Plans of Commissioner Claxton

Commissioner Claxton has on several occasions made public announcement of the policy which he expects to adopt during the coming year, for the federal Bureau of Education. His plans are comprehensive, and include many types of research which the bureau has up to this time been unable to undertake because of lack of funds. It will be necessary in order to accomplish what Commissioner Claxton has in mind that Congress be very much more generous in its appropriations to the bureau than at any time in the past. Funds are to be asked for, not merely for the publication of statistical reports, but also for the pursuit of a number of general investigations of the educational activities of the country.

Danger of Scattering Educational Activities

There is one difficulty which the aggressive plans of the new commissioner will encounter. A number of agencies in other bureaus, and even in other departments of the federal government, have been placed in charge of educational interests. This subdivision of educational activities has gone so far that there is some danger that the bureau will find its work scattered about in various offices. Thus the general supervision of agricultural education is in the hands of the Department of Agriculture. The promotion of industrial education is rapidly passing over into the hands of the Bureau of Labor of the Department of Commerce and Labor. Mr. Charles H. Winslow, as the special agent of the Bureau of Labor, has recently been engaged in bringing together a large body of valuable material describing the various experiments which are now being made in the country to provide industrial education either in private or in public schools. The Department of Commerce and Labor has also assumed charge of the legislation for the improvement of working conditions among children. This labor legislation may very properly be regarded as a part of the work of the Department of Commerce and Labor. And yet the interests of education are so

intimately bound up in all of the labor legislation which applies to children that there is danger as stated above that the educational interests will become scattered throughout all of the different departments, and thus lack the unity which they should derive from the central control of educational activities through the Bureau of Education. Certainly if this undesirable disintegration of educational interests is to be avoided, it is time that a vigorous policy be adopted both by the Bureau of Education in Washington and by all who are interested in educational organization throughout the country.

Representatives Must Be Personally Interested

It will be quite impossible for the new commissioner to carry through his comprehensive plans without the support of those who are interested in education. It is not enough that this interest should express itself from time to time in formal resolutions passed at gatherings of teachers. There must be active support, and this support must be given in such a way as to be effective in Washington. The difficulty which exists now is that the ordinary representative who goes to Washington has never had it impressed upon him that the Bureau of Education is a matter of large interest to his constituents at home. This same representative knows perfectly well that the interests of the Department of Agriculture are of great importance to his constituents. This fact has been brought home to him by many references during the campaign in which he was elected, to the work of the Department of Agriculture. The teachers of his community, on the other hand, are in very large numbers not voters, and in the second place, they have never taken the pains to draw his attention to the important contributions which are being made by the federal bureau to the general movement of education. Indeed, it may be doubted whether all of the teachers in the public schools of this country are aware of the importance of the bureau as a clearing-house of information, and as a center for the distribution of this information. The new commissioner has a right to ask that school people inform themselves, first, with regard to the service which this bureau has rendered in the past to school organization in this country. He has a right to ask, in the second place, that his plans receive careful consideration from educators in every state;

and finally, that these plans, if approved, be brought to the attention of representatives before they start for the Capitol. The representatives who go up from the different districts will in this way be prepared to act intelligently upon the recommendations of the commissioner, and will realize that these recommendations represent a demand which is as wide as the nation.

Support to Be Effective Must Be Given Now

The first step in this general program of support of the commissioner consists in a clear recognition of the necessity of investigations. It has been pointed out repeatedly in this journal that there are at the present time many very efficient forms of school organization which are little understood by teachers outside of the immediate sphere of influence of these special experiments. There are forms of industrial education, there are methods of dealing with the problem of promotion and with the course of study, which could be made very influential if they could be understood and their results carefully tested. There is great need of some central agency which shall bring together in closer unity the high schools and the elementary schools. There is need of some central investigation of the normal-school problem. All of these larger interests will be properly served only when some agency broader in its interests than the state departments of education concerns itself with the consideration of educational practice and organization. The bureau ought to have in all of these investigations the heartiest support of the school people of the country. The bureau can serve a purpose which no other agency in this country is large enough or comprehensive enough to undertake. The commissioner ought to feel assured that he has the support of the individual members of the national school system. There can be no doubt that the time has arrived in the history of the bureau when it must expand and bring together the educational activities, or its functions will be subdivided among the various other departments of the central government.

BOOK REVIEWS

Spelling Efficiency in Relation to Age, Grade, and Sex, and the Question of Transfer. By J. E. WALLACE WALLIN. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1911. Pp. 91.

This study, which is published in the series of "Educational Psychology Monographs," is a good contribution to the subject of the method of teaching spelling. The author begins with a description and critical discussion of the two contrasted methods, the incidental method and the method of drill. The incidental method received an impetus from the investigations of Rice and Cornman. This method did not seem to Wallin to be in accordance with the conditions of efficient habit formation. He accordingly arranged a method which should involve the elements of drill, that is, focalization of attention upon the words to be learned, and attentive repetition. The method also included the use of the test words in dictation in order to facilitate their application to the ordinary conditions of the use of words. This method has been used in the public schools of Cleveland.

The results of the method in the spelling efficiency of the Cleveland pupils are compared with the results of the tests given by Kratz, Chancellor, and Rice. The Cleveland averages are from 12.6 per cent to 27 per cent higher than those obtained by the other investigators, with the same sort of test—the word-column method. It was found also that the efficiency reached in the word-column tests carried over into dictated writing or compositions in which the same words were used. This fact meets the objection of the incidentalists that formal drill in spelling does not carry over to connected writing. These results were obtained by devoting to spelling "5.96 per cent of the available time, as compared with 7.22 per cent, the average for a number of the leading cities of the country."

The author also discusses the relation of spelling to age, grade, and sex, but the most important point, which he seems to have made clearly, is that a carefully devised drill has a marked effect in raising spelling efficiency.

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BOOKS RECEIVED

LAIRD & LEE, CHICAGO

The Standard American Drawing and Lettering Book. The Modern Art of Sign-Writing. Drawn and Arranged by PETER IDARIUS. Pp. 103.

GINN & CO., CHICAGO

Arithmetic. Book I. By GEORGE WENTWORTH AND DAVID EUGENE SMITH. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 296. $0.35.

Arithmetic. Book II. By GEORGE WENTWORTH AND DAVID EUGENE SMITH. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 296. $0.40.

Arithmetic. Book III. By GEORGE WENTWORTH AND DAVID EUGENE SMITH. Cloth. Illustrated.

Tell It Again Stories. By ELIZABETH THOMPSON DILLINGHAM AND ADELLE POWERS EMERSON. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 173. $0.50.

Pinocchio in Africa. Translated from the Italian of Cherubini by ANGELO PATRI. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 152. $0.40.

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK

The Social Composition of the Teaching Population. By LOTUS DELTA COFFMAN. Cloth. $1.00.

Progress through the Grades of City Schools. By CHARLES HENRY KEYES. Cloth. $1.00.

A Special Study of the Incidence of Retardation. By LOUIS B. BLAN. Cloth. $1.00.

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DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & CO., GARDEN CITY, N.Y.

The School of Tomorrow. A Collection of Prize Essays from the *World's Work.* Cloth. Pp. 152.

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King's Woodwork and Carpentry. Elements of Woodwork. By CHARLES A. KING. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 146. $0.60.

Dramatic Reader for the Lower Grades. By FLORENCE HOLBROOK. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 192. $0.40.

White Patch. Bertelli's Italian Story of Ciondolino. Retold by ANGELO PATRI. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 216. $0.40.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice. Edited by GILBERT SYKES BLAKELY. Cloth. Pp. 112.

Kimball's Elementary English. Books I and II. By LILLIAN G. KIMBALL. Cloth. Pp. 299.

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[1] *Abbreviations.*—Amer. Phys. Educa. Rev., American Physical Education Review; Atlan., Atlantic; Educa., Education; Educa. R., Educational Review; El. School T., Elementary School Teacher; Journ. of Educa. (Bost.), Journal of Education (Boston); Journ. of Educa. Psychol., Journal of Educational Psychology; Kind. M., Kindergarten Magazine; Lit. D., Literary Digest; Liv. Age, Living Age; Out., Outlook; Pedagog. Sem., Pedagogical Seminary; Pop. Educator, Popular Educator; Pop. Sci. Mo., Popular Science Monthly; Psychol. Clinic, Psychological Clinic; R. of Rs., Review of Reviews; School R., School Review; School W., School World; Sci. Amer., Scientific American; Teach. Coll. Rec., Teacher's College Record; Voca. Educa., Vocational Education.

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